

## Math140B - HW #6

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**Q4**

Let  $f_n(x) := \frac{1}{1+n^2x}$ .

**(a) Absolute Convergence**

For a fixed value of  $x$ , let  $a_n := f(x)$ . Suppose  $x > 0$ . Then

$$\left| \frac{1}{1+n^2x} \right| < \frac{1}{n^2x} = c \frac{1}{n^2}$$

where  $c = \frac{1}{x}$ .  $\sum c \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges, so  $\sum |a_n|$  converges by the comparison test when  $x > 0$ .

Suppose  $x < 0$ . Pick  $N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that  $N^2|x| - 1 > 0$ . Then  $\forall n \geq N$ ,

$$|1 + n^2x| = |n^2|x| - 1| = n^2|x| - 1 > 0$$

Using this inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{|1+n^2x|} &= \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} \frac{1}{|1+n^2x|} + \sum_{n=N}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2|x| - 1} \\ &< \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} \frac{1}{|1+n^2x|} + \frac{1}{|x|} \sum_{n=N}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \end{aligned}$$

so the series converges absolutely by the comparison test.

Of course, when  $x = 0$ ,  $f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1$ , which diverges.

**(b) Uniform Convergence**

Of course, the intervals for uniform convergence must avoid  $x = 0$ .

Take any  $a > 0$ . Then for any  $x \in [a, \infty)$ ,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+n^2x} < \frac{1}{a} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

which means any parameter that satisfies pointwise boundedness at  $a$  satisfies the boundedness at all  $x \geq a$ . Hence  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $[a, \infty)$  (and also  $(a, \infty)$ ).

Next, fix any  $b < 0$ . As in (a)  $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that  $|1 + N^2x| N^2|x| - 1 > 0$ . Take any  $x \in (-\infty, b]$ . Using the fact that  $N^2|x| - 1 > N^2|b| - 1 > 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{|1 + n^2x|} &= \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} \frac{1}{|1 + n^2x|} + \sum_{n=N}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2|x| - 1} \\ &< \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} 1 + \frac{1}{|b|} \sum_{n=N}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \end{aligned}$$

so  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $(-\infty, b]$  (and also  $(-\infty, b)$ ).

The analysis above also illuminates that the  $f_n$ 's do not uniformly converge to  $f$  on intervals  $(0, a]$  or  $[b, 0)$ . As  $x$  gets closer and closer to 0, the greater the  $N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  required to ensure pointwise convergence to  $f$  since  $\frac{1}{|x|}$  increases without bound as  $x \rightarrow 0$ .

### (c) Continuous wherever the series converges?

Since absolute convergence implies convergence,  $\sum \frac{1}{1+n^2x}$  converges whenever  $x \neq 0$ . Also, when  $x \neq 0$ ,  $x$  is always in some closed interval that excludes 0. Each individual  $f_n$  is continuous on that closed interval (\*) and the  $f_n \rightarrow f$  on the closed interval, so  $f$  is continuous at  $x$ . In other words,  $f$  is continuous wherever the series converges.

(\*): technically,  $f_n$  where  $n$  satisfies  $n^2x = 1$  is not even defined at  $x$ .

### (d) Is $f$ bounded?

By (a),  $f$  is not bounded because  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2x+1}$  diverges when  $x = 0$ .

## Q9

Since the  $f_n$ 's are continuous and converge uniformly to  $f$ ,  $f$  is continuous. Take any  $\forall \{x_n\}_n \subset E$  with  $x_n \rightarrow x$ . By the continuity of  $f$ ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = f(x)$$

Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ .  $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that  $\forall n \geq N$ ,

$$|f_n(p) - f(p)| < \epsilon \text{ for any } p \in E \text{ and } |f(x_n) - f(x)| < \epsilon$$

By the triangle inequality,  $\forall n \geq N$ ,

$$|f_n(x_n) - f(x)| \leq |f_n(x_n) - f(x_n)| + |f(x_n) - f(x)| < 2\epsilon$$

which shows that  $f_n(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

## Q10

Let  $f_n(x) := \frac{(nx)}{n^2}$ . If  $f(x) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(x)$ , then clearly  $\sum f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$  since for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\left| \frac{(nx)}{n^2} \right| < \frac{1}{n^2}$$

and  $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges.

Notice that for any  $n$ ,  $(nx)$  is discontinuous on all integer multiples of  $1/n$  and continuous everywhere else, i.e.,

$$(nx) \text{ is discontinuous on } x = x' \iff x' \in \left\{ \frac{m}{n} \mid m \in \mathbb{Z} \right\} \quad (1)$$

Thus the individual  $f_n$ 's are continuous on  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \implies \sum_{i=1}^n f_i$  are continuous on  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  for any  $n \implies f$  continuous on  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  because  $\sum f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly.

On the other hand,  $f$  is discontinuous on  $\mathbb{Q}$ . Take any  $p/q \in \mathbb{Q}$  where  $\gcd(p, q) = 1$ . By (1),  $f_n$  is discontinuous on  $p/q \iff q \mid n$ . Decompose  $f$  as follows:

$$f(x) = \underbrace{\sum_{q \mid n} f_n(x)}_{g(x)} + \underbrace{\sum_{q \nmid n} f_n(x)}_{h(x)}$$

where the  $n$  in both sums are positive integers, of course. It's easy to see that, by a similar reasoning as  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_i$ , the two series in the decomposition are uniformly convergent on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Furthermore, since each summand of  $h$  is continuous at  $p/q$ ,  $h$  is continuous at  $p/q$  by uniform convergence. To show  $f$  is not continuous at  $p/q$ , it suffices to show  $g$  is not continuous at  $p/q$ . First, rewrite  $g(x)$  as

$$g(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_{kq}(x) = \frac{1}{q^2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(kqx)}{k^2}$$

Notice each  $f_{kq}$  is not only discontinuous at  $p/q$ , but also  $f_{kq}(p/q) = 0$ . So  $g(p/q) = 0$  as well. However, the left-hand limit of  $g$  at  $p/q$  is not 0; instead,

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow (p/q)^-} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(kpt)}{k^2} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2}$$

Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since  $\sum_k \frac{1}{k^2}$  converges,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that  $\sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} < \epsilon/2$ . Set

$$\delta := \min \left\{ \frac{\epsilon}{2q \sum_{k=1}^N 1/k}, \frac{1}{Nq} \right\}$$

Take any  $t \in (p/q - \delta, p/q)$  and rewrite  $t = p/q - \delta'$  for some  $\delta' < \delta$ . Then

- $\sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} \frac{1 - (kqt)}{k^2} < \sum_{k=N+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} < \epsilon/2$

- Notice that because  $\delta' < \delta \leq \frac{1}{Nq}$ ,  $(kq[p/q - \delta']) = (-kq\delta') = 1 - kq\delta'$  for all  $k < N$ . Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1 - (kpt)}{k^2} &= \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{kq\delta'}{k^2} \\ &= kq' \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{k} \\ &< \epsilon/2 \end{aligned}$$

by choice of  $\delta$ .

This shows  $\left|1 - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(kqt)}{k^2}\right| < \epsilon$ . In other words,  $\lim_{t \rightarrow (p/q)^-} q^2 g(t) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2}$ , the latter which does not agree with the value of  $q^2 g(p/q) = 0$ ;  $g$ , and thus  $f$ , is discontinuous at  $p/q$ .

As a bonus, a similar analysis shows that the right-hand limit of  $g$  at  $p/q$  is 0. Recapitulating,  $f$  is continuous on the irrationals and discontinuous on the rationals, which is a dense, countable subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Turning to integrability, take any bounded interval  $[a, b]$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ . For any  $n$ , (1) implies that  $f_n$  has finitely many discontinuities. Hence  $\sum_{i=1}^n f_i$  has finitely many discontinuities for any  $n$ , which means

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f_i \in \mathcal{R}_a^b$$

for every  $n$ . By uniform convergence,  $f \in \mathcal{R}_a^b$  as well.

## Q12

By Theorem 4.2, the following Cauchy criterion for real valued functions can be given:

**Claim 1.** For any real-valued function  $h$ ,  $\lim_{t \rightarrow x}$  exists (and is finite)  $\iff \forall \epsilon < 0, \exists \delta > 0$  such that

$$\forall t, t' \in B_\delta(x), |h(t) - h(t')| < \epsilon$$

Similarly,  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty}$  exists and is finite  $\iff \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists B \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\forall b, b' \geq B, |h(b) - h(b')| < \epsilon$$

The Cauchy criterion can be used to prove that  $\int_0^\infty f_n dx$  is bounded for all  $n$ . First, fix  $t > 0$ . Then, for any  $n$ ,  $\left|\int_t^\infty f_n dx\right|$  converges and is finite: Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since  $\int_t^\infty g dx$  converges and is finite,  $\exists T \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\forall T' > T'' \geq T$ ,  $\left|\int_t^{T'} g dx - \int_t^{T''} g dx\right| = \left|\int_{T'}^{T''} g dx\right| < \epsilon$ . But

$$\left|\int_{T'}^{T''} f_n dx\right| \leq \int_{T'}^{T''} |f_n| dx \leq \int_T^{T''} g dx < \epsilon$$

so the  $T$  that satisfies the Cauchy criterion for  $g$  satisfies the Cauchy criterion for the  $f_n$ 's as well. This shows that  $\int_t^\infty f_n dx$  converges and is finite. A similar proof can be used to show that for any fixed  $T > 0$ ,  $\int_0^T f_n$  converges and is finite. Hence

$$\int_0^\infty f_n dx \text{ exists and is finite}$$

Also, because  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly,  $|f| \leq g$ . Suppose not;  $\exists x \in (0, \infty)$  such that  $|f(x)| > g(x)$ . By the convergence of  $f_n$ ,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that  $\forall n \geq N$ ,  $|f(x) - f_n(x)| < |f(x)| - g(x)$ . But the reverse triangle inequality says  $|f(x)| - |f_n(x)| \leq |f(x) - f_n(x)| < |f(x)| - g(x) \implies |f_n(x)| > g(x)$  for all  $n \geq N$ , a contradiction. So  $|f| \leq g$ , and by the same reasoning as for  $f_n$ ,

$$\int_0^\infty f dx \text{ exists and is finite}$$

Now, to show

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^\infty f_n dx = \int_0^\infty f dx$$

fix  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since  $\int_0^T g dx \rightarrow \int_0^\infty g dx$  as  $T \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\exists T > 0$  such that  $\int_0^\infty g dx - \int_0^T g dx = \int_T^\infty g dx < \epsilon$ . Similarly,  $\exists t > 0$  such that  $\int_0^t g dx < \epsilon$ . Also, because  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that  $\forall n \geq N, \forall x \in (0, \infty)$ ,  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{T-t}$ . Then  $\left| \int_t^T (f_n - f) dx \right| \leq \int_t^T |f_n - f| dx < \epsilon$ . Putting this together, for all  $n \geq N$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_0^\infty (f_n - f) dx \right| &\leq \left| \int_0^t f dx \right| + \left| \int_0^t f_n dx \right| + \int_t^T |f_n - f| dx + \left| \int_T^\infty f_n dx \right| + \left| \int_T^\infty f dx \right| \\ &< 5\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

as was to be shown.

## Q14

For all  $t \in I$ ,  $|x(t)| \leq \sum_{n=1}^\infty 2^{-n}$ , the latter being a convergent geometric series. By the Weierstrass  $M$ -test,  $x(t)$  converges uniformly on  $I$ . Since for each  $n$ ,  $f(3^{2n-1}t)$  is a composition of continuous functions,  $x(t)$  is continuous by uniform convergence. By the same reasoning as  $x(t)$ ,  $y(t)$  converges uniformly on  $I$  and is continuous;  $\Phi(t)$  is thus continuous.

Let  $E$  be the Cantor set. To see  $\Phi(E) = I^2$ , first notice  $\forall z \in I$ , there is a binary sequence  $\{a_n\}$ , where each  $a_n \in \{0, 1\}$ , such that  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty 2^{-n} a_n = z$ : essentially, the  $a_n$ 's "binary search" for  $z$ . The precise construction of the  $a_n$ 's is as follows: let  $s_0 = 0$  and for  $n \geq 1$ ,  $s_n = s_{n-1} + a_n$ . Then inductively define

$$a_n = \begin{cases} 1, & z - s_{n-1} \geq 2^{-n} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

From this construction, one can see  $0 \leq z - s^n < 2^{-n}$  for each  $n$ , and since  $2^{-n} \rightarrow 0$ ,  $z - s^n \rightarrow 0$ . Of course,  $s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n 2^{-k} a_k$ , so  $\sum_{k=1}^\infty 2^{-k} a_k = z$ .

So for all  $x_0, y_0 \in I^2$ , one can build a binary sequence  $\{a_n\}$  such that  $x_0 = \sum_{n=1}^\infty 2^{-n} a_{2n-1}$ ,  $y_0 = \sum_{n=1}^\infty 2^{-n} a_{2n}$ . Now, let

$$t := \sum_{n=1}^\infty 3^{-n-1} 2 a_n$$

where  $t \in E$  by Ch. 3, Q19. Now, for any integer  $k$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} f(3^k t) &= f\left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2a_n 3^{k-n-1}\right) \\ &= f\left(2 \sum_{n=1}^{k-1} a_n 3^{k-n-1} + \sum_{n=k}^{\infty} 2a_n 3^{k-n-1}\right) \\ &= f\left(\sum_{n=k}^{\infty} 2a_n 3^{k-n-1}\right) \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

$$= f\left(\frac{2}{3}a_k + \underbrace{\sum_{n=k+1}^{\infty} 2a_n 3^{k-n-1}}_{\delta}\right) \tag{2}$$

where (1) follows because  $f$  has a periodicity of 2. Notice that due the indexing of the sum,  $\delta < 1/3$ . Consequently, if  $a_k = 0$ , then  $0 \leq \frac{2}{3}a_k + \delta < 1/3$ , which means by (2),  $f(3^k t) = 0$ . Similarly, if  $a_k = 1$ , then  $\frac{2}{3} \leq \frac{2}{3}a_k + \delta$ , so  $f(3^k t) = 1$ . Either way,  $f(3^k t) = a_k$ .

Using this, one easily sees

$$x(t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} a^{2n-1} = x_0 \text{ and } y(t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{-n} a^{2n} = y_0$$

This shows that  $f(E) = I^2$ .

## Q15

$f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[0, \infty)$ . Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ . Because the  $f_n$ 's are equicontinuous,

$$\exists \delta > 0 \text{ such that } \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+, \forall x, y \in [0, 1] \text{ with } |x - y| < \delta, |f_n(x) - f_n(y)| < \epsilon$$

Take any  $x, y > 0$  such that  $|x - y| < \delta$ . Let  $n := \max\{\lceil x \rceil, \lceil y \rceil\}$ . Then

$$\frac{x}{n}, \frac{y}{n} \in [0, 1] \text{ and } \left| \frac{x}{n} - \frac{y}{n} \right| = \frac{1}{n} |x - y| < \delta$$

By equicontinuity,  $|f_n(x/n) - f_n(y/n)| = |f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$ , which shows that  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[0, \infty)$ .